

COMP 90048 Declarative Programming Workshop 7 (week8)

2019 semester 1

by Wendy Zeng

Tutorial: Tue 18:15 - 19:15 221 Bouverie St, room B111

Wed 17:15 - 18:15 201 Bouverie St, room B132



Outline

- 1. Tail Recursion Optimization in Prolog
 - a. Factorial
 - b. Prolog List: Reverse
- 2. Difference Lists
 - a. Prolog Tree: Tree to List
 - b. Prolog List: QuickSort
- 3. Some clarifications on common operators:



- Tail Recursion Optimization:
 - When the recursive call is the last function invoked in the evaluation of the body of the function.
 - Can be implemented in many programming languages besides Prolog
- Motivation for Tail Recursion:
 - Efficiency: consumes less stack depths compared to full recursive functions. Intermediate call stacks are not needed to resume when recursion returns with values. The last recursive call can be returned straight to the initial call stack.
 - Tail recursive functions are a mimic of **loop** in imperative function
- Usually achieved with the use of accumulator



Full Recursion:

Tail Recursion:

A: accumulator

- Has an "initial" value (mostly [] or 0 or 1)
- Holder of temporary computation result up to current recurssion step (etc. up to number of N)
- New value of accumulator is computed (A1), then passed down into the recurssion



Full Recursion:

```
factorial1(N, F):-
    ( N = := 0 \rightarrow
    ; N > 0 ->
             N1 is N-1,
             factorial1(N1, F1),
             F is F1*N
   F = 1
  F = 1 * 1
  F = (1 * 1) * 2
  F = ((1 * 1) * 2) * 3
```

Tail Recursion:

```
factorial2(N, F) :- factorial2(N,
1, F).
factorial2(N, A, F):-
    ( N = := 0 ->
            F = A
    ; N > 0 ->
            N1 is N-1,
            A1 is A*N,
            factorial2(N1, A1, F)
  A = 1 * 3
  A = (1 * 3) * 2
  A = ((1 * 3) * 2) * 1
  When N = := 0, F = A
```



Naive Reverse:

reverse1([], []).
reverse1([Head|Tail], Rev):reverse1(Tail, Rev_tail),
append(Rev_tail, [Head],
Rev).

Result Rev is built up on the way up the recursive stacks

Tail Recursive Reverse:

reverse2(List, Rev):- reverse2(List, [], Rev).
reverse2([], Acc, AccReturn the accumulator
reverse2([H|T], Acc, result:reverse2(T, [H|Acc], Reversed remains to be reversed
Partial reversal of the list
Partial reversal of the list

Result Rev is built on the way down the recursive stacks



Which of the following function is tail recursive?

map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b] map _ [] = [] map f (x:xs) = (f x):(map f xs)

filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a] filter _ [] = [] filter f (x:xs) = if f x then x:fxs else fxs where fxs = filter f xs

foldl :: (v -> e -> v) -> v -> [e] -> v foldl _ base [] = base foldl f base (x:xs) = let newbase = f base x in foldl f newbase xs

foldr :: (e -> v -> v) -> v -> [e] -> v foldr _ base [] = base foldr f base (x:xs) = let fxs = foldr f base xs in f x fxs (:) is executed after the recursion call

(:) is executed after the recursion call

f is applied after the recursion call



What is Difference Lists:

- Knowing the structure of a list up to a point
- The remaining of the list can be left unbound until the complete evaluation of a predicate

```
1. Prolog tree: Tree to
List
Naive version:

tree_list1(leaf, []).

tree_list1(node(L, V, R), List):-

tree_list1(R, R_list),

tree_list1(L, L_list),

append(L_list, [V|R_list],
List).
```

Using Accumulator:

 The accumulator is a temporary computation result that holds all the elements from nodes that have already been visited



 1. Prolog tree: Tree to List **Using Difference** Lists: list3(Tree, List):- tree_list3(Tree, List, []). tree_list3(+Tree_of_elem, -List_of_all_elem, tree_list3(leaf, List, List). tree_list3(node(L, V, R), Full_list, End_of_list [ens. is to list of at the end on L with End_of_list_L appended to it's end tree_list3(L, Full_list, End_of_list_L), End_of_list_L = [V|List_R], tree_list3(R, List_R, End_of_list) What should be appended to the end of left ist is decomposed in to the current value in node plus everything from the right branch List_R: is a list of all elements from R with End_of_list appended to it's end



• 2. Prolog List: QuickSort

```
Naïve QuickSort: greater(Pivot, X):- X>Pivot.

quicksort1([], []).
quicksort1([H|Tail], Sorted):-
partition(greater(H), Tail, Larger, Smaller),
quicksort1(Smaller, LeftList),
quicksort1(Larger, RightList),
append(LeftList, [H|RightList], Sorted).
```

 Similar to Haskell's version of QuickSort:

```
quicksort :: (Ord a) => [a] -> [a]
quicksort [] = []
quicksort (x:xs) = quicksort smaller ++ [x] ++ quicksort larger
    where
    smaller = [ t | t <- xs, t<x ]
    larger = [ t | t <- xs, t>=x ]
```



• 2. Prolog List: QuickSort

Using Difference Lists:

```
quicksort2(List, Sorted) :- quicksort2(List, Sorted, []).

quicksort2([], Rest, Rest).
quicksort2([Pivot|Tail], Sorted_all, End_of_sorted_all) :-
    partition(greater(Pivot), Tail, Larger, Smaller),
    quicksort2(Smaller, Sorted_all, End_of_sorted_small),
    End_of_sorted_small = [Pivot|Sorted_large],
    quicksort2(Larger, Sorted_large, End_of_sorted_all).

quicksort2(+Unsorted_list, -Sorted_list,
+Already_sorted_end_of_list)
```



3. Some clarifications on common operators:

=: Unification

- What it does: unify terms on both sides of the sign
- When it succeeds: when terms on both sides are unifiable
- \=

==: Term comparison

- What it does: test whether terms on both sides are literally identical
- When it succeeds: identical terms
- \==, @<, @=<, @>, @>=
- Term comparison rule:
 Var < Number < String < Atom < Compound Term



3. Some clarifications on common operators:

is: Arithmetic Evaluation

- What it does: evaluate mathematical expression on right hand side and unify it with the unbound term on the left
- When it succeeds: left hand side is unbound and right hand side is proper mathematical expression

=:= Arithmetic Comparison

- What it does: evaluate expressions on both sides and compare the results
- When it succeeds: evaluation results from both sides are literally identical
- =\=, <, >, =<, >=



Thank you

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